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Final Technical Report (12/22/95)

Program AFOSR-F49620-92-J-0469

Artificial Nonlinear Dielectrics for THz/subpicosecond Generation

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**Abstract**

In the program "artificial nonlinear dielectrics for picosecond/THz signal generation", AFOSR grant #F49620-92-J-0469 the following devices have been developed and experimental results obtained:

- Shock-wave nonlinear-transmission-line (NLTL) pulse generators and NLTL-gated sampling circuits have been built with 0.48 ps risetimes and 725 GHz bandwidths.
- Development of 500-100 GHz Schottky-collector Heterojunction Bipolar Transistors were pursued, including device design, mask layout, and two generations of devices fabricated. At the time of the contract end, devices with 120 GHz bandwidths were obtained.
- Active probes (using NLTL technologies) have been constructed for on-wafer mm-wave network analysis, and measurements demonstrated over a 10-200 GHz bandwidth. The system was then demonstrated with extensive measurements of advanced high-speed ICs.
- Antenna-coupled 0.1- $\mu$ m Mott switching diodes with circuit-limited bandwidths beyond 5 THz were fabricated.
- Traveling-wave resonant-tunnel-diode pulse generators were designed, fabricated, and tested. These produced transients with 3.8 ps measured risetimes

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## **Research Accomplishments**

### **0.48 ps (725 GHz) pulse generators and sampling circuits**

A primary goal of the program was extension of NLTL pulse generator and sampling circuit bandwidths. At the time of program initiation, NLTLs and their related sampling circuits had 1.3 ps transition times, corresponding to 275 GHz bandwidths. At the time of the last program report, at 9/20/93, we had extended NLTL and sampling circuit bandwidths to 515 GHz and obtained 0.68 ps deconvolved transients from NLTLs. During the period covered in the present report, after extensive efforts, NLTL pulse risetimes were reduced to 0.48 ps and NLTL-gated sampling circuits increased to DC-725 GHz bandwidths.

Work pursued in order to obtain the 725 GHz / 0.48 ps result is described below. At the bandwidths involved, the circuit dimensions and device spacings approach the dimensions of the devices themselves. The metal lines interconnecting the devices no longer behave as ideal transmission lines and have substantial parasitics. On the earlier 515 GHz NLTLs, layout capacitance was severe, decreasing the compression of the high-frequency portions of the device by almost 30%. To compensate for the reduced compression per unit length, the NLTL length had to be increased, which increased the NLTL's attenuation, further impairing performance.

To reduce layout parasitics, the NLTLs transverse dimensions must be small compared to a wavelength of the highest Fourier component of the signal. Signal line conductors on the 0.68 ps NLTLs were only 5  $\mu\text{m}$  wide over a 1 mm distance; this resulted in very high skin loss. The signal deviation near the NLTL output was thus reduced, and did not encompass the range between zero and -2 Volts where the diode capacitance varies most strongly. This reduced the NLTL's dynamic compression, increasing the falltime of the generated shock wavefronts. Given high attenuation, large input drive must be used, and the diodes must have high breakdown voltages and hence low cutoff frequencies.

Bandwidth of the 515 GHz / 0.68 ps NLTL was limited primarily by transmission-line parasitics and attenuation. In order to extend the NLTL bandwidth, the 725 GHz / 0.48 ps NLTLs developed in the present contract period used elevated coplanar waveguide. Elevated coplanar waveguide is a transmission line in which the metal signal conductor is raised 2  $\mu\text{m}$  above the semiconductor substrate. Fabrication processes for elevated CPW are an extension of air-bridge fabrication processes. Air-dielectric transmission lines were used to a limited extent by the Stanford group at the input sections of their NLTLs; it is however near the NLTL output, with its small diode spacings, very high skin-effect losses, and high Bragg frequencies where the air-bridge-lines have the most significant impact.

### Cross Section of Air Bridge Line

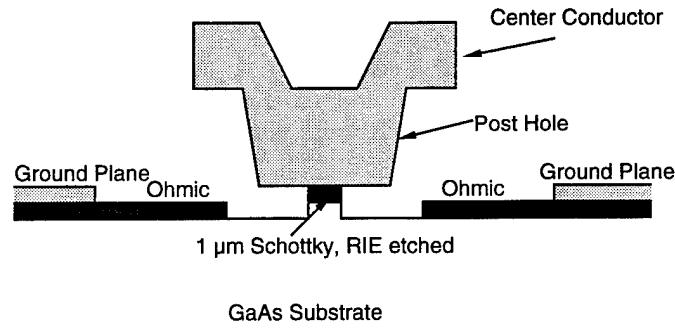


Figure 1: Cross-section of the elevated coplanar waveguide NLTL .

The air-bridge-line is a coplanar waveguide (CPW) transmission line with the signal conductor raised above the semiconductor (dielectric) surface. Because the field is primarily in air rather than the GaAs substrate, the line's effective dielectric constant is reduced from 7 to 1.1. The electrical velocity is increased, permitting higher Bragg frequencies, and wider conductors can be used, reducing skin loss.

Design Parameter	515 GHz design (last report)	725 GHz design (this report)
Line Loss	8 dB	3.8 dB
Diode Doping	$10^{17}$	several designs
Loss Compensation	Gradient Biasing	Impedance Tapering
Expected Edge Speed (SPICE)	0.60 ps	0.29 ps
Sampling diode	1.3 μm	1.1 μm
Differentiator	1.0 ps	0.5 ps
Net Sampler time (SPICE)	0.5 ps	0.3 ps

Figure 2: Summary of design parameters for the 515 GHz and 725 GHz NLTLs & Sampling circuits

As line parasitics are most important where the conductors are narrow and where the Bragg frequencies are high, air-bridge-lines must be used near the NLTL output. Conventional air-bridges processes (as used for example in the Stanford designs) are too large (5-10 μm minimum dimensions) to use near the NLTL output. Instead, in the present contact period we developed a modified fabrication process whereby the signal conductor has its normal support posts eliminated. Instead, the air-bridge-line is supported by directly contacting the top of the Schottky diode contacts. The support-post capacitance is eliminated; metal contacts semiconductor only in the diode active areas.

A sophisticated process was required for fabrication of these low-loss lines. After deposition and annealing of the ohmic contacts, the Schottky contacts were deposited by liftoff. The wafer was then covered by a thick layer of Polyimide. The polyimide is subsequently etched in an oxygen reactive-ion-etching system until approximately 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  of the Schottky metal is exposed. The remaining process is similar to a normal air-bridge fabrication process. Air-bridge posts for the elevated lines are formed on top of the polyimide and provide contacts to the tops of the diodes. After electroplating the elevated lines the polyimide is removed, leaving the contacts between the CPW and the diodes in air, substantially reducing the parasitic layout capacitance.

Figure 2 (above) summarizes the expected improvement in performance with the new NLTL and sampling circuit designs. Measured NLTL skin-effect losses are reduced by approximately 4 dB. Further, loss in amplitude of the shock-wave with propagation distance is compensated for by impedance tapering. The net reduction in signal amplitude during propagation on the NLTL is therefore greatly reduced.

While it was expected that the newer NLTL designs would show significantly improved performance from improvements in the transmission-lines alone, improvements in the diode technology were also pursued. These efforts were less successful. Several diode structures were pursued, including GaAs/AlGaAs heterojunction barrier Schottky varactor diodes, and stacked-epitaxial diode designs in which several different diodes designs could be incorporated in different portions of the NLTL. While design of the GaAs/AlGaAs heterojunction barrier varactor diodes was described in the last contract report, processing and fabrication of such diodes continued throughout the period covered in the present report. With such diodes, the wide-bandgap AlGaAs cap layer potentially provides high reverse breakdown voltages despite the use of very thin diode layers as required for high cutoff frequencies. Extensive process runs with AlGaAs/GaAs diodes failed to produce reproducible diodes, a result ascribed to the ease with which AlGaAs can be oxidized or inadvertently etched by normal processing chemicals. The effort was eventually abandoned when it became apparent that the associated processing difficulties incurred were out of proportion to the expected improvements in performance.

Instead, heavily-doped, 1- $\mu\text{m}$ -geometry GaAs Schottky diodes were employed. Circular diode geometries used in the sampling circuit and near the NLTL output allowed diode cutoff frequencies as high as 5 THz. Initial sampling circuits processed with this diode design had 725 GHz bandwidth (fig. 4). The measured 0.48 ps NLTL falltime closely correlated with that expected due to electron velocity saturation within the NLTL's Schottky varactor diodes.

Consequently, following the measurement of the 725 GHz / 0.48 ps result, 3 additional NLTLs designs were designed and fabricated using modified diode epitaxial designs. Diodes were more heavily doped, so as to decrease the depletion edge movement and thereby decrease the effect of velocity saturation. Patterned etching of the diode active layers was used to delineate different diode characteristics at different portions of the NLTL, exchanging as appropriate diode bandwidth against diode breakdown voltage. Despite these efforts, bandwidths above 725 GHz were not obtained. It is suspected that there are layout difficulties in the sampling circuit which are presently limiting the bandwidth. We believe that NLTL and sampling circuit bandwidths can be further extended to nearly 2 THz, but development of Schottky-Collector Heterojunction Bipolar Transistors (discussed subsequently) became a higher priority under the AFOSR program.

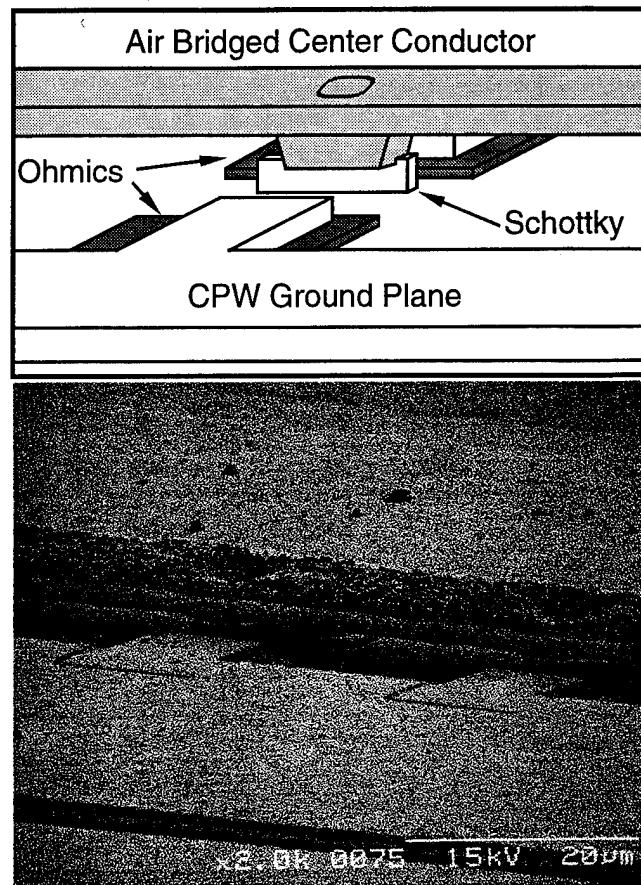


Figure 3: Diagram and SEM of a 0.48-ps NLTL using elevated coplanar waveguide.

#### 0.48 ps (728 GHz) Pulse Generator and Sampling Circuit

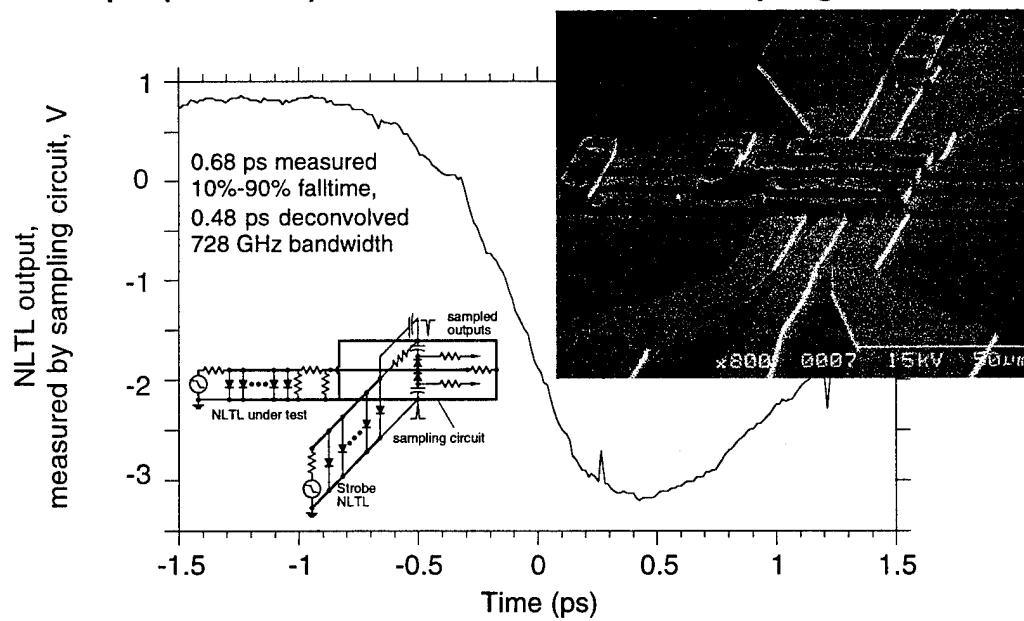


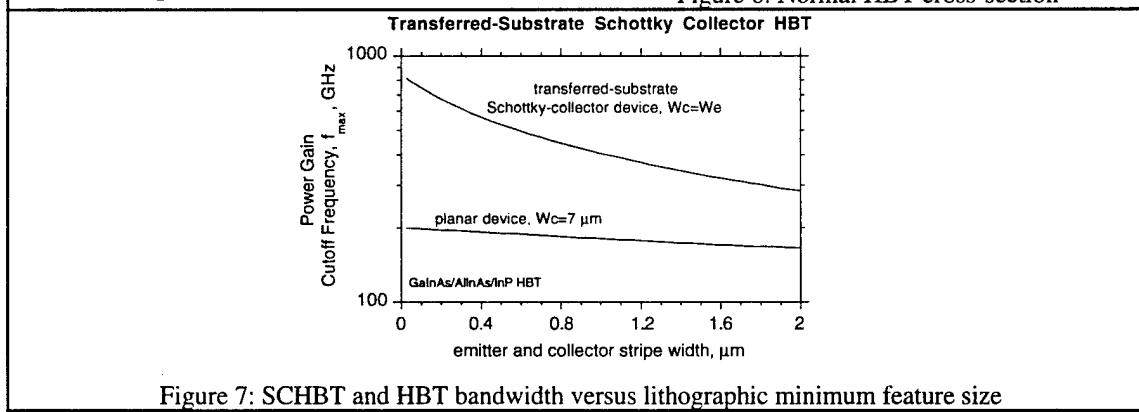
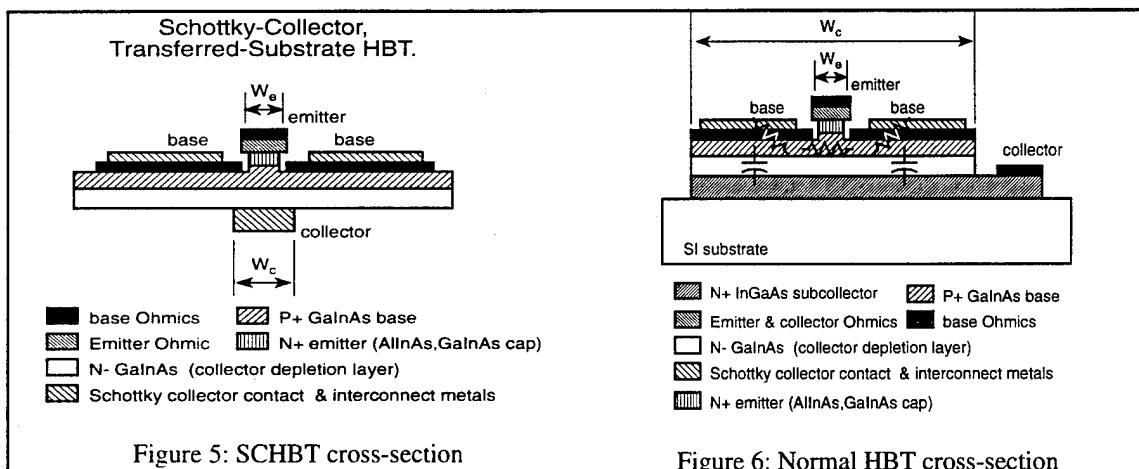
Figure 4: Circuit diagram, SEM, and measured waveform for a deep subpicosecond NLTL pulse generator and NLTL-gated sampling circuit.

## Schottky-collector Bipolar Transistors

An emerging focus of the AFOSR contract is development of Schottky-collector heterojunction bipolar transistors (SCHBTs). Initial design calculations indicated that SCHBTs have potential cutoff frequencies in the 500-1000 GHz range. There is a very large potential impact on future millimeter-wave systems, with the strong possibility of sophisticated transistor integrated circuits replacing the elementary waveguide-coupled diode technology currently used at higher mm-wave frequencies. Because of the very high potential bandwidth they offer in a 3-terminal device SCHBTs became the major focus of the AFOSR program in its last 12 months

### Technical Description

SCHBTs are HBTs modified so that the collector and emitter widths can be scaled to below 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  width. Transistor cutoff frequencies of 500-1000 GHz become feasible. The SCHBT technology has two key features: an epitaxial transfer process to allow lithographic definition of both the emitter and collector (thus removing excess base-collector capacitance), and Schottky collector contacts to allow scaling of the collector contact dimensions to 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$ .



The SCHBT obtains a large reduction in a resistance-capacitance time constant, hence a large increase in  $f_{\max}$ , by extreme scaling through the use of a deep-submicron Schottky-collector-contact. Conventional HBTs do not benefit from submicron scaling of lithographic dimensions. With the SCHBT, two key innovations result in greatly improved bandwidth during scaling: a substrate transfer during processing which allows lithographic definition of narrow collectors and emitters, and a submicron Schottky collector contact which permits scaling to 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  width. Simultaneously scaling the SCHBT emitter and collector stripe widths from 1  $\mu\text{m}$  to 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  results in a dramatic reduction in  $r_{bb}C_{cb}$ , increasing the transistor power-gain cutoff frequency  $f_{\max}$  to nearly 1000 GHz. This is explained below. The approach is a direct application of scaling laws, with no new device physics.

First consider HBT bandwidth. While  $f_{\tau} = 1/2\pi(\tau_b + \tau_c)$  depends only on transit times,  $f_{\max} = \sqrt{f_{\tau}/8\pi R_{bb}C_{cb}}$  involves the base resistance and the internal collector-base capacitance  $C_{cb}$ . High-speed circuits require that  $f_{\max}$  and  $f_{\tau}$  be high, with a 1.5:1  $f_{\max}:f_{\tau}$  ratio generally optimum.

Figs. 5 & 6 show comparative cross-sections of HBTs and SCHBTs. In the normal HBT the collector junction width  $W_c$  is much larger than the emitter stripe width  $W_e$ , greatly increasing  $C_{cb}$  and decreasing  $f_{\max}$ . More important, the scaling properties of normal HBTs are ruined by the large collector junction. The collector-base capacitance  $C_{cb}$  is proportional to the collector width but is independent of the emitter width. The base resistance is dominated by the base ohmic contact resistance and is consequently independent of the emitter width for emitter widths below  $\approx 2 \mu\text{m}$ . Since  $f_{\tau}$  and  $r_{bb}C_{cb}$  are independent of the emitter width, so is  $f_{\max}$ . For emitter stripe widths below 1  $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $f_{\max}$  does not improve.

In contrast, SCHBTs have a collector contact width equal to the emitter width. This results in smaller  $C_{cb}$  and a significant increase in  $f_{\max}$ . More importantly, deep submicron scaling greatly increases the bandwidth of SCHBTs.  $C_{cb}$ , proportional to the collector width, is proportional to the emitter width since the widths are now equal. The base resistance is still independent of emitter width, and hence  $r_{bb}C_{cb}$  is proportional to the (equal) emitter and collector widths. Consequently,  $f_{\max} \propto 1/\sqrt{W_c}$ : the device bandwidth varies as the inverse square root of the lithographic dimensions. At 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  critical feature sizes, cutoff frequencies above 700 GHz result, well above the present art for HBTs. The  $f_{\max}$  calculations of fig. 7 use InGaAs/AlInAs HBT material parameters from the literature.

There are limits to emitter and collector submicron scaling. As the emitter width is reduced, its periphery-area ratio increases and the current gain  $\beta$  drops due to surface recombination at the emitter-base mesa edge. This can be controlled by proper surface passivation: AlGaAs/GaAs HBTs with 0.3  $\mu\text{m}$  emitter width have recently been reported.

An efficient Schottky collector must be as wide as the emitter, and alignment tolerances must be accommodated. Because of fringing fields, the effective collector width is the physical collector width plus the collection depletion layer thickness. With a projection aligner, 0.5  $\mu\text{m}$  features can be defined at 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  alignment tolerance. This limits the emitter width to 0.5  $\mu\text{m}$  and the collector width to 0.9  $\mu\text{m}$ , resulting in  $f_{\max} = 440 \text{ GHz}$ .

With electron-beam lithography a  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$  emitter and a  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$  Schottky collector width are feasible, giving an  $f_{\max} = 750 \text{ GHz}$ .

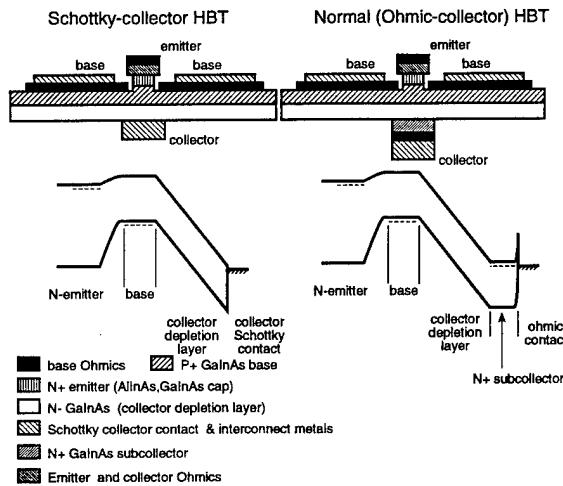


Figure 8: Layer Structures and band diagrams comparing ohmic- and SCHBTs

Fig. 9 compares the band diagrams and layer structures of Schottky-collector vs. a transferred-substrate HBT using a normal ohmic collector. The Schottky collector enables lithographic definition of collector contact widths as small as  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$ . The ohmic collector requires several process steps for fabrication and is therefore more difficult to scale to  $0.1 \mu\text{m}$ . In InGaAs/InAlAs SCHBTs the contact is to InGaAs. Schottky contacts to N-InGaAs result in very leaky junctions due to the small  $0.2 \text{ eV}$  *conduction-band barrier*, but it is the large  $0.5 \text{ eV}$  *valence-band barrier* which is relevant here; base/Schottky-collector junctions UCSB has fabricated have low measured reverse leakage (fig. 9).

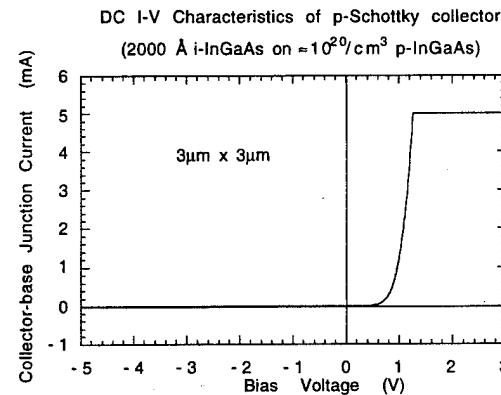


Figure 9: Measured characteristics of a InGaAs/InAlAs SCHBT collector-base junction.

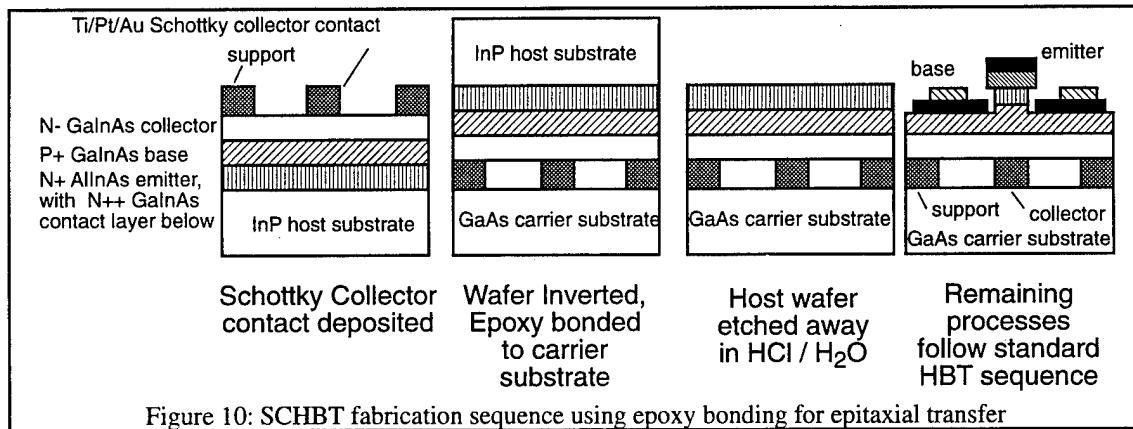


Figure 10: SCHBT fabrication sequence using epoxy bonding for epitaxial transfer

SCHBTs require high resolution processing of both sides of the transistor layers using epitaxial transfer. A process flow using epoxy adhesives is shown in fig. 10. While this process may seem aggressive, Rockwell Science center has demonstrated the transfer of 3 inch diameter AlGaAs HBT wafers to AlN and diamond substrates for improved heat sinking.

### *Progress during the contract period*

During the contract period the following work was pursued. Initial design calculations and feasibility analysis were performed by one graduate student under AFOSR support. Initial designs had used a Schottky tunneling emitter in addition to the Schottky collector. The intent: the electrical dimensions of the tunnel emitter are the same as the Schottky contact footprint. Emitters with 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  width would therefore be easily obtainable by electron-beam lithography. Mask sets for this device were fabricated, and several InGaAs/AlAs wafers grown by MBE. Initial processing was then pursued. There were difficulties with the tunnel emitter which led to its abandonment after 2 months work: specifically, the graded tunnel barrier layers, having  $\approx 100 \text{ \AA}$  thickness, were readily attacked and damaged during photolithographic processing steps.

Subsequently, we have focused on fabrication of a Schottky-collector HBT having a normal N+ emitter. N+ emitters are readily fabricated at 1  $\mu\text{m}$  dimensions. Scaling of an N+ emitter to  $\approx 0.1\text{--}0.2 \mu\text{m}$  emitters requires deposition of emitter ohmic contact metal with a subsequent self-aligned etch through the emitter using an RIE system. In early 1994, similar processing steps were demonstrated during the fabrication of Junction-High-Electron-Mobility-Transistors at UCSB. Success with this device was a strong indication of the feasibility of scaling SCHBTs to 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  dimensions whilst maintaining the N+ semiconductor emitter. The tunnel emitter was therefore abandoned in favor of the N+ semiconductor emitter.

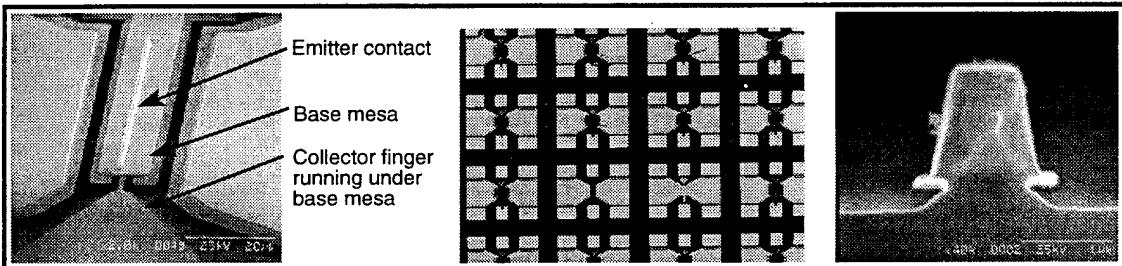


Figure 11: SCHBT before emitter planarization. Center: Array of processed devices. Right: Emitter cross-section.

Process development for 1- $\mu\text{m}$ -geometry InGaAs/InAlAs SCHBTs was started in May 1994. A variety of epitaxial transfer technologies have been developed by Prof. Bower's group at UCSB, including Palladium bonding, epoxy bonding, and wafer fusion. Experiments performed in the Summer of 1994 indicated that epoxy bonding under vacuum, with the correct adhesives and curing, is remarkably robust under processing. While there was some concern regarding the poor thermal conductivity of the epoxy, electron micro graphs indicate that the epoxy is below 300  $\text{\AA}$  thickness between the Schottky collector and the GaAs transfer substrate, and must therefore have a very low net thermal resistance. Further, the metal contacts to the collector and emitter have 6 times greater thermal conductivity than the GaAs substrate, and are very effective heat-spreading devices. Fabricated SCHBTs biased at normal power densities do not fail thermally, nor does the epoxy show evidence of thermal stress. Power dissipation is in the collector-base junction: it is likely that the superior thermal conductivity of the Schottky collector more than offsets the thermal resistance of the sub-300- $\text{\AA}$  epoxy film.

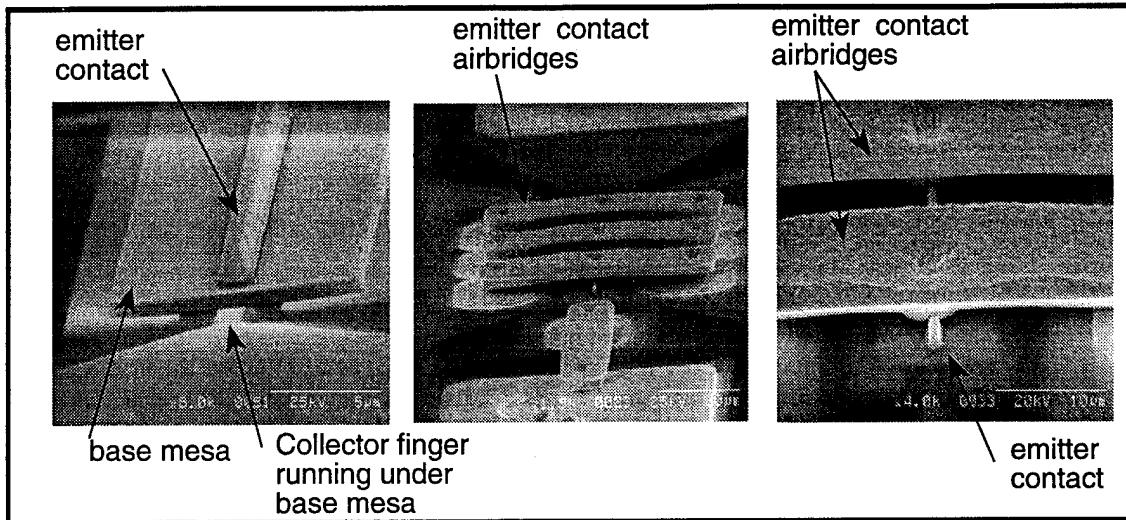


Figure 12: Left: SCHBT before emitter planarization. Center and Right: Views of completed device.

Three views of first-generation SCHBTs are shown in fig. 11. On the left is an SEM of a nearly-completed device, shown before emitter planarization for clarity. The center image shows an array of completed devices: on the 1 cm by 1 cm samples currently being processed, the epoxy bonding shows no defects. Samples will be scaled to 1-inch dimensions and larger as research processes from devices to circuits. The right SEM shows an emitter cross-section prior to base contact metal deposition. The self-aligned emitter-base process is high-yield but currently uses wet chemistry; dry etching in the UCSB facilities must be adopted as the emitter dimensions are scaled to below 1  $\mu$ m.

Three additional images of SCHBTs are shown in fig. 12. The left image shows a high-magnification SCHBT image prior to emitter planarization. This device shows a slight collector misalignment: at UCSB, e-beam processes will be used to obtain submicron alignment precision. In industrial applications, 0.1  $\mu$ m registration can be obtained using projection aligners, a resource presently unavailable at UCSB. The center and right images show the completed SCHBT after polyimide planarization/passivation and formation of emitter contact airbridges.

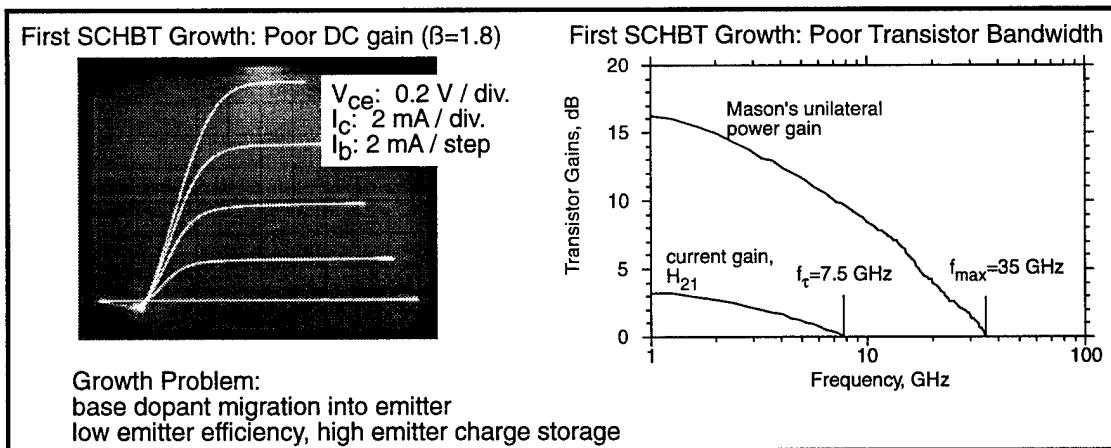
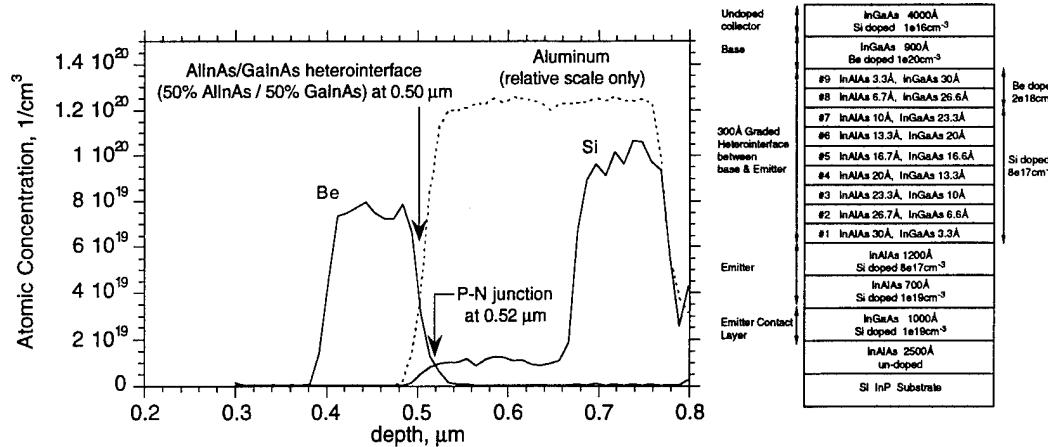


Figure 13: Left: Measured SCHBT DC characteristics. Right: Measured microwave gains vs. frequency.

### First SCHBT Growth: Base Dopant Migration Into Emitter



### 2<sup>nd</sup> SCHBT Growth: Corrected Base Doping Profile

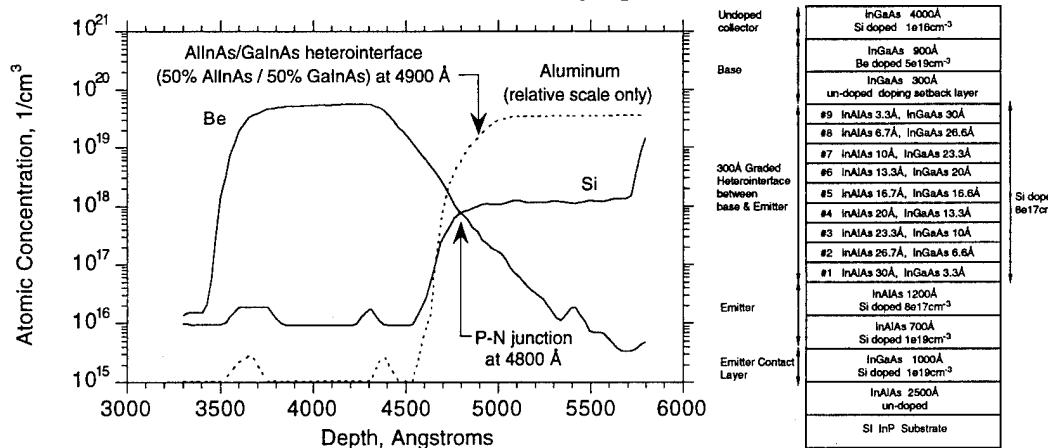


Figure 13 shows measured performance of the first SCHBTs, completed November, 1994. The devices show both extremely poor DC current gain and very poor bandwidth in relation to the expected  $\approx 200$  GHz. The origin of these difficulties is in the transistor materials growth. Figure 14 shows measured doping and alloy profiles of the first SCHBT, determined by SIMS. The target MBE growth profile is shown on the right of figure 14. The Be base dopant has diffused through the InGaAs/InAlAs base-emitter heterojunction, forming a P-N junction located within the wideband InAlAs emitter. This is a classical failure mode in HBT growth. The energy barrier blocking hole injection from base into emitter has been greatly degraded. There is consequently a very small DC current gain, and the substantial emitter stored (hole) charge results in a very low current-gain cutoff frequency.

Since November, research has focused on resolving improving growth and fabrication processes, particularly the base dopant migration. A variety of MBE growths have been performed, varying base doping, growth temperature, and base doping setback. All growth were characterized by SIMS. Fig. 15 shows the MBE target growth profile and SIMS data (doping profile) for an growth performed in January 1995. The P-N doping transition has penetrated only 50 Å into the 300 Å InGaAs/InAlAs graded emitter-base heterojunction. A caution should be made: the spatial resolution of SIMS analysis is such that is useful only as a first indicator of base dopant migration. In subsequent growths, the migration of base dopant is monitored by measurements of the base-emitter turn-on voltage (e.g. the so-called Gummel plot), which is very sensitive to this parameter. Devices processes on this wafer had a greatly increased power-gain cutoff frequency, as shown in figure 16, below. SCHBTs with a 1-μm-wide collector obtained a 61 GHz power-gain cutoff frequency, 2.5:1 larger than reference wide-collector devices fabricated on the same wafer. The latter devices have a geometry almost identical to a normal HBT, and serve as a standard of comparison for the SCHBT. Despite this, unfortunately the DC current gain remained low at  $\beta=2.7$ .

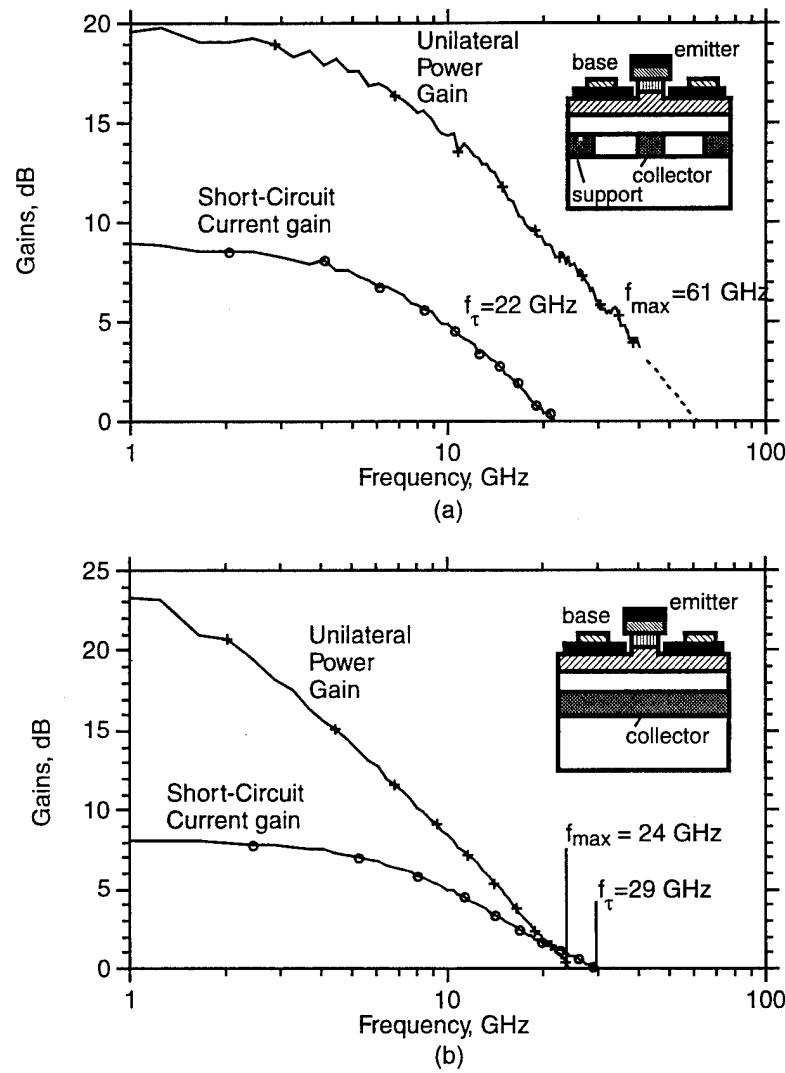


Figure 16: Comparison of the RF characteristics of (a) and SCHBT with 1-μm collector width to (b) a wide-collector reference device

Subsequent work has focused on improving the material epitaxial growth further. Base doping positioning relative to the emitter remains to be fully resolved, as excessive base migration into the emitter causes the catastrophic loss in gain described above, but insufficient movement of base dopant into the designed-in base dopant setback layer results in a retrograde base doping profile with both increased base transit times and decreased current gain. The additional major problem addressed over the course of the program period is vertical and lateral control of the base recess etch. Extremely precise vertical depth control is required in etching through the emitter to access the base because of the small 500-700 Å base thickness. The degree of lateral etching is also a major issue, as excess lateral etching undercuts and destroys the emitter, while insufficient lateral etching of the emitter results in the base ohmic contacts being placed within an electron diffusion length of the emitter, whereby they act as very effective electron recombination centers, destroying the transistor' current gain. Gary Hurtz, a graduate student supported under the associated AASERT program developed an "umbrella" process which solved the latter problem (figures 17, 18). DC and RF characteristics of the resulting devices are shown in figures 19 and 20. The DC current gain is now 20-30, and the power-gain cutoff frequency exceeds 100 GHz.

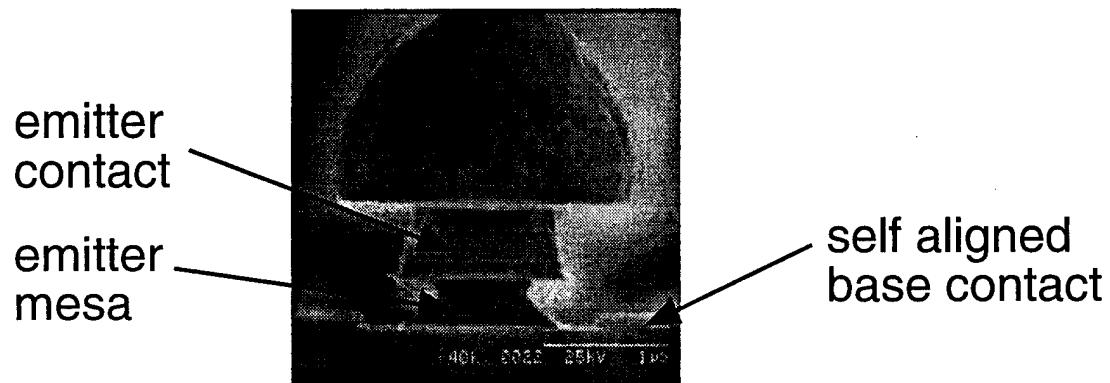


Figure 17: Emitter "Umbrella" Process developed by G. Hurtz. The plated cap on the emitter contact metal acts to prevent base contact metal deposition in direct contact with the emitter mesa. Subsequent processes with better emitter etch control did not require this feature.

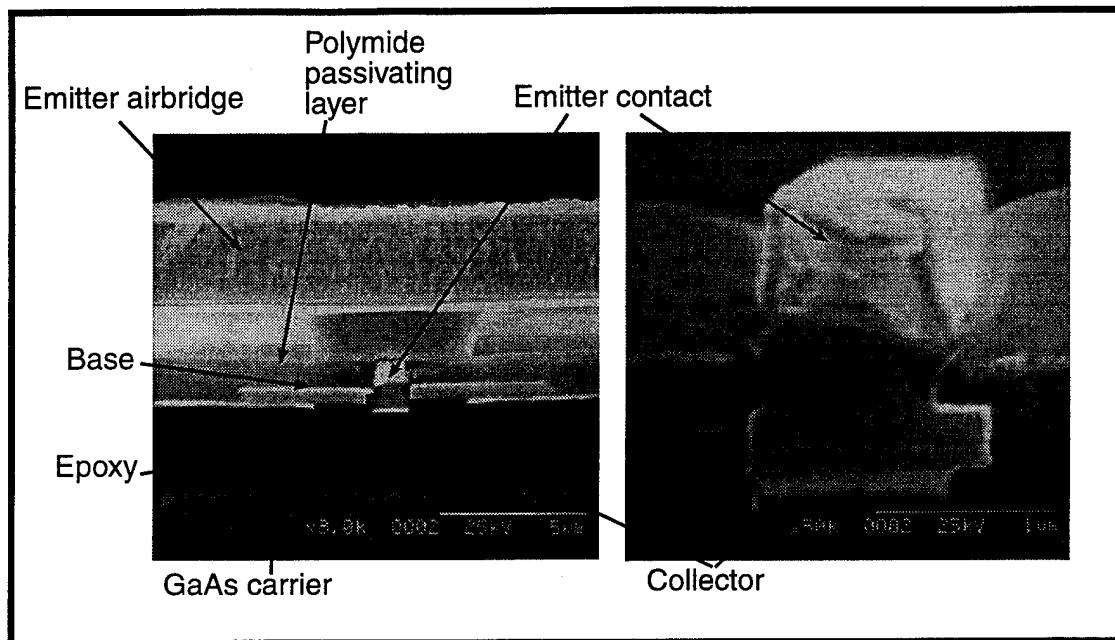


Figure 18: Cross-sections imaged by an electron beam microscope after cleaving. Note that the base contacts have fractured from the emitter/collector stripe during cleaving. The epoxy is abnormally thick on this process run.

## Common emitter characteristics

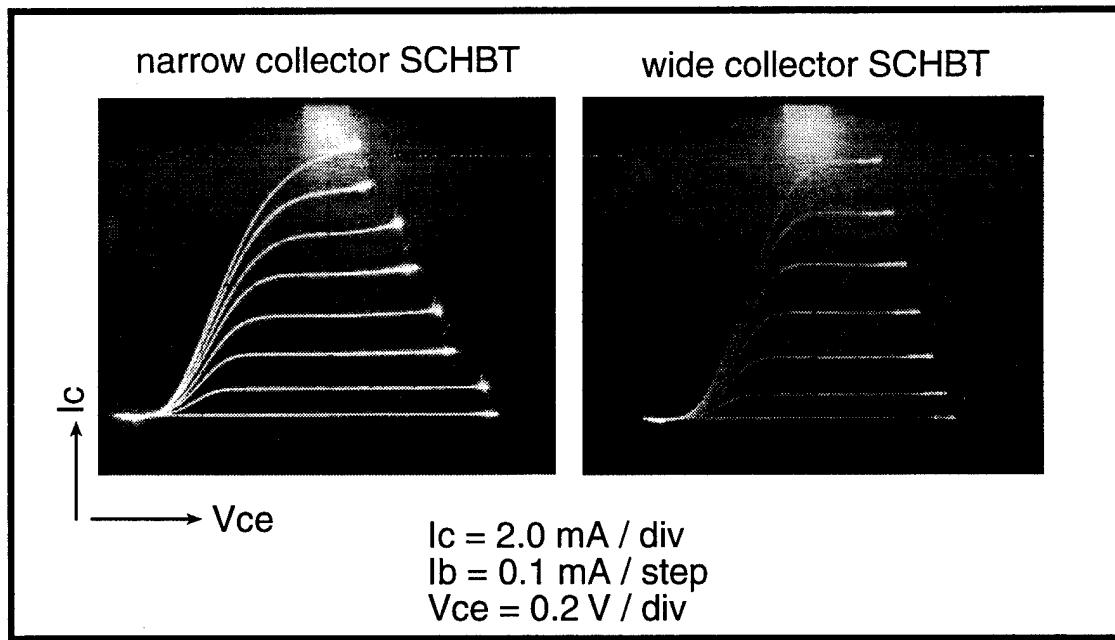
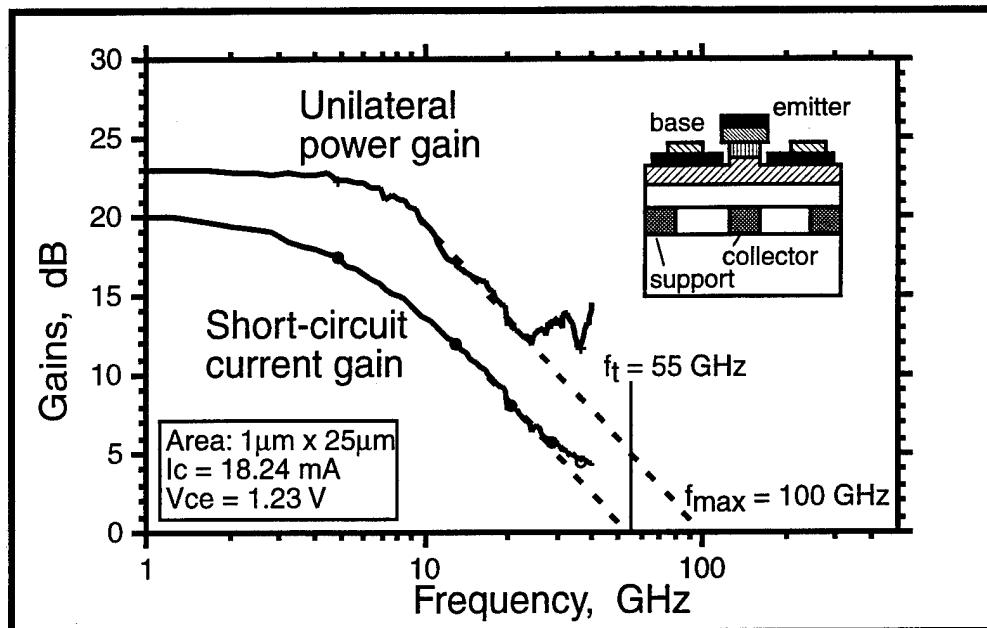


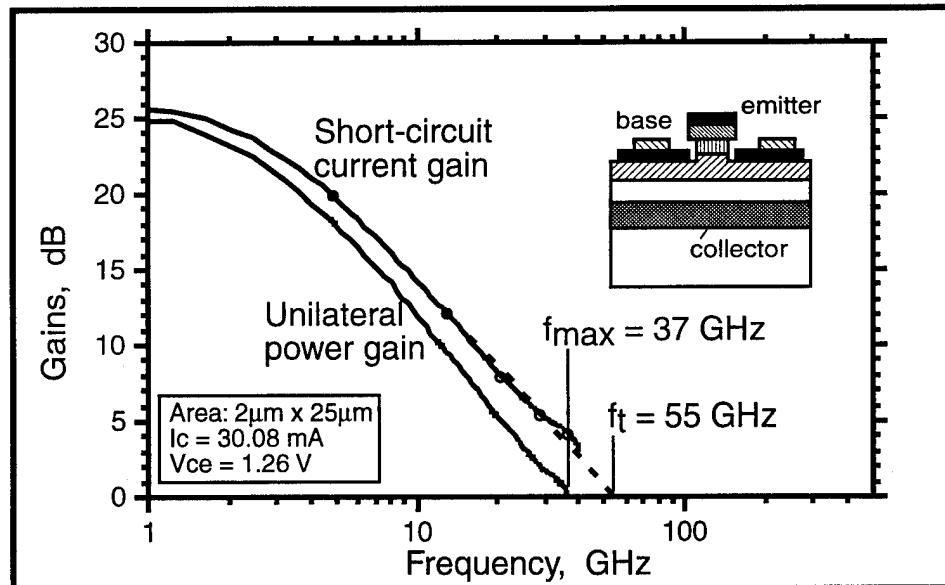
Figure 19: Measured DC characteristics of recent devices. The DC current gain is now 20-30.

## RF characteristics of SCHBT with $W_C = W_E = 1\mu\text{m}$



- $f_{\max} / f_t = 1.8$

## RF characteristics of wide collector SCHBT



- reference device similar to normal HBT

Figure 20: Results as of program's end. Top: 1-μm SCHBT power and current gains  
Bottom: Results with wide-collector reference device.

The results clearly do not yet meet the program's objectives. A renewal to the AFOSR contract has been granted. Under this contract, the materials and process difficulties will be fully resolved and the device subsequently scaled to deep submicron dimensions. Bandwidths will then exceed 500 GHz.

#### Active Probes for on-wafer electrical measurements to 200 GHz

A second major effort under the present AFOSR program and its associated AASERT contract was the development of millimeter-wave and picosecond electronic instrumentation based upon NLTLs. Based upon lower-performance versions of the NLTL and sampling circuits, full integrated circuits were developed for network analysis. These consisted of an NLTL pulsed stimulus signal generator, and an NLTL-gated directional sampling circuit used to independently measure the incident and reflected waves from the device under test.

For on-wafer measurements, active probes were constructed (fig. 21). These consisted of the NLTL-based active probe IC, a microwave signal-routing substrate, and a low-loss quartz coplanar-waveguide probe tip providing a DC-250 GHz connection to the device under test. During the AFOSR program, three generations of active probes were developed, with progressively improved IC and probe tip designs. A full system for on-wafer S-parameter analysis was constructed, with accuracy sufficient for circuit characterization to 200 GHz (figs. 22, 23). In addition to efforts in developing the probe hardware, obtaining operation to 200 GHz required substantial efforts in system design.

At the time of the last contract report, the active probe system provided usable gain-frequency measurements to 160 GHz. During the present program period, this was extended to 200 GHz, and the active probe system was demonstrated on a variety of high-speed and microwave integrated circuits. Improvements necessary to improve the usable bandwidth to 200 GHz were mostly at the system level. Signal processing electronics at the probe IF (sampled, low-frequency) outputs was improved to allow for higher sampled frequencies, a modification which reduces the effects of signal generator phase noise on measurement accuracy. Directivity of the system was improved by adding signal sum-and-difference operations prior to analog-digital conversion. Finally, the probe tip design was revised: earlier probe tips had a mask layout defect which resulted in trapping of polyimide processing residues on the probe tips, degrading their high-frequency performance. Resulting performance of the active probes is shown below in figure 24.

Having demonstrated raw system performance, the system was demonstrated through measurements of a number of microwave integrated circuits. Figures 24 and 25 below show measurements by the active probe system of AlGaAs/GaAs microwave ICs provided to UCSB by the Fraunhofer institute in Germany. Correlation between the UCSB probe system and a customized commercial system was within the expected range, given differences between circuits tested at the 2 locations.

More significantly, the active probe system has allowed development at UCSB of monolithic circuits with record performance. Complementary to the AFOSR-funded efforts in mm-wave measurements, monolithic amplifiers with c.a. 100 GHz bandwidth were developed. This program was a partnership between UCSB and Hughes Malibu Research Labs, with support provided by a MICRO contract jointly funded by the State of California and Hughes, by the AFOSR, and (recently) by ARPA. Circuits were designed at UCSB, fabricated at Hughes, and tested by the UCSB active probe system. The resulting

capacitive-division distributed amplifiers obtained a record 340 GHz gain-bandwidth product (fig. 26), and circuits which should obtain substantially wider bandwidth are currently in fabrication. Significant to this work was the use of capacitive division: while capacitive division has been introduced by others, the improvements in gain-bandwidth products obtainable by this technique do not seem to have been recognized in the literature.

Finally, the active probes have been used to characterize NLTL-based multiplexer-demultiplexer ICs for 100 Gbit/s fiber-optic transmission, ICs developed under the ARPA-funded Thunder & Lightning program (fig. 27). The active probes continue to be key resources for mm-wave IC development: UCSB/Hughes monolithic amplifier IC designs are in fabrication with target 200 GHz bandwidth. These are to be tested on the active probe system.

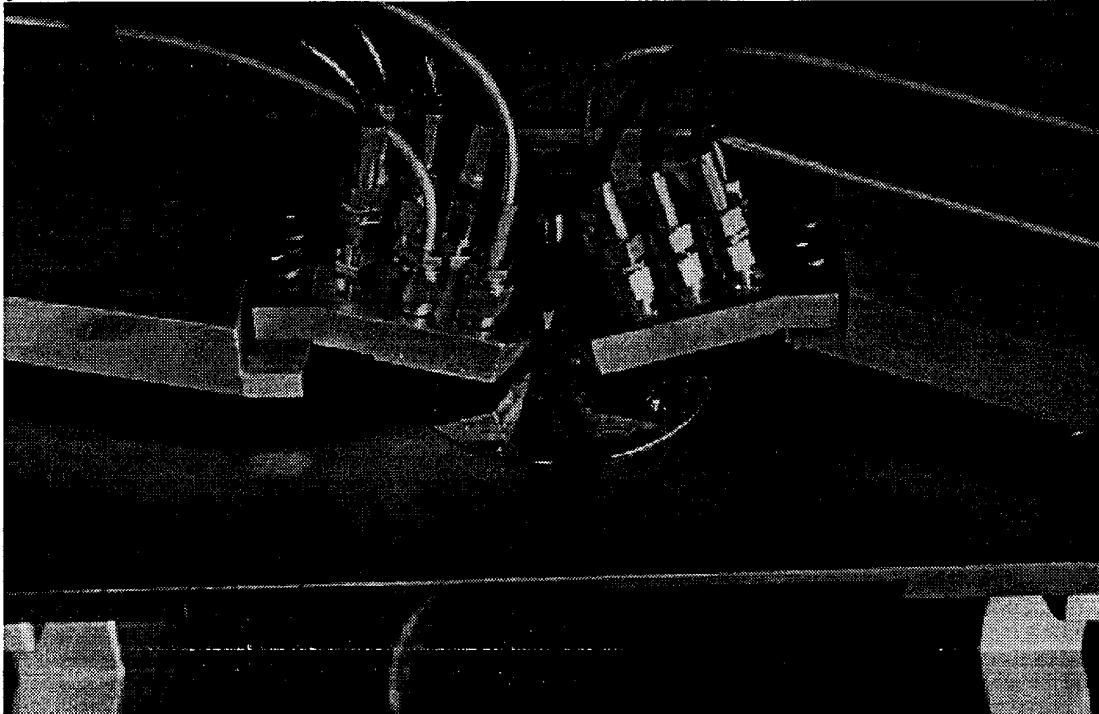


Figure 21: Active probes for on-wafer mm-wave network analysis.

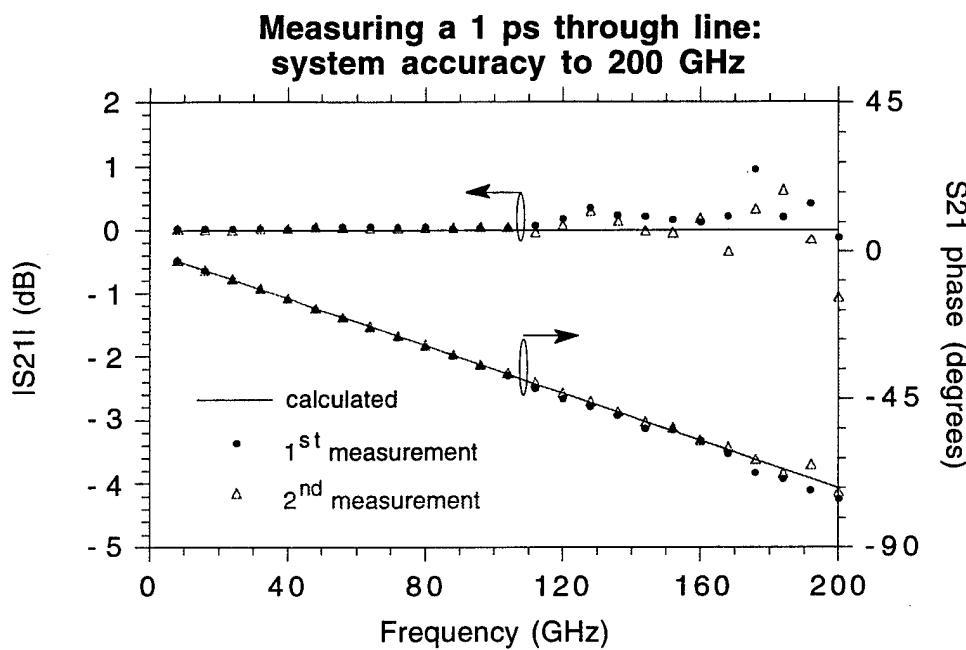


Figure 22: Verifying probe performance. Measured 7-200 GHz characteristics of a 1-ps-long  $50\ \Omega$  through line 30 minutes after calibration. The transmission should be 0 dB at 1 ps delay.

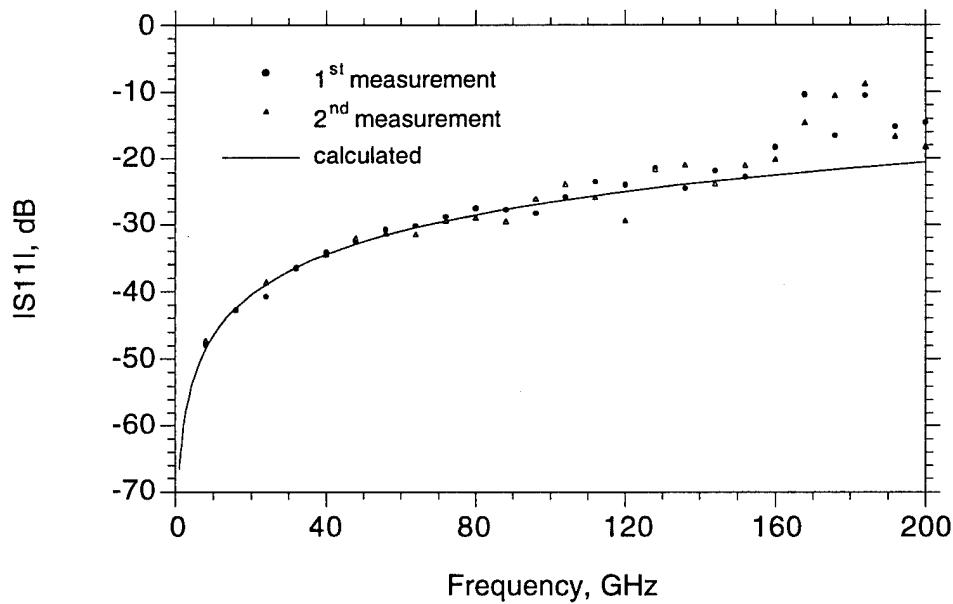
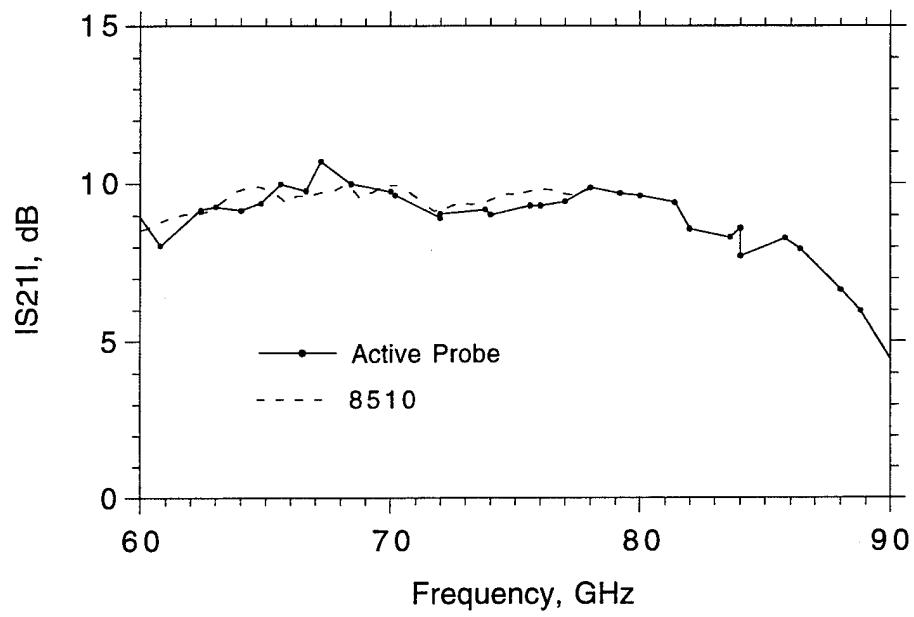
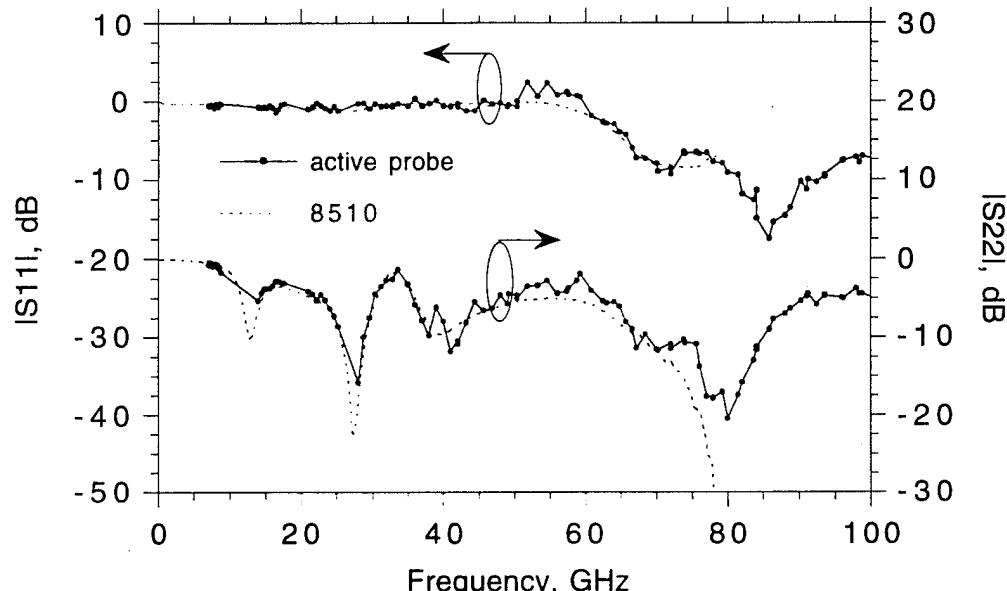


Figure 23: Verifying probe performance. Measured 7-200 GHz characteristics of a  $50\ \Omega$  termination 30 minutes after calibration. Because of the finite load inductance, the reflection magnitude should be as indicated on the graph, not zero ( $-\infty$  dB).

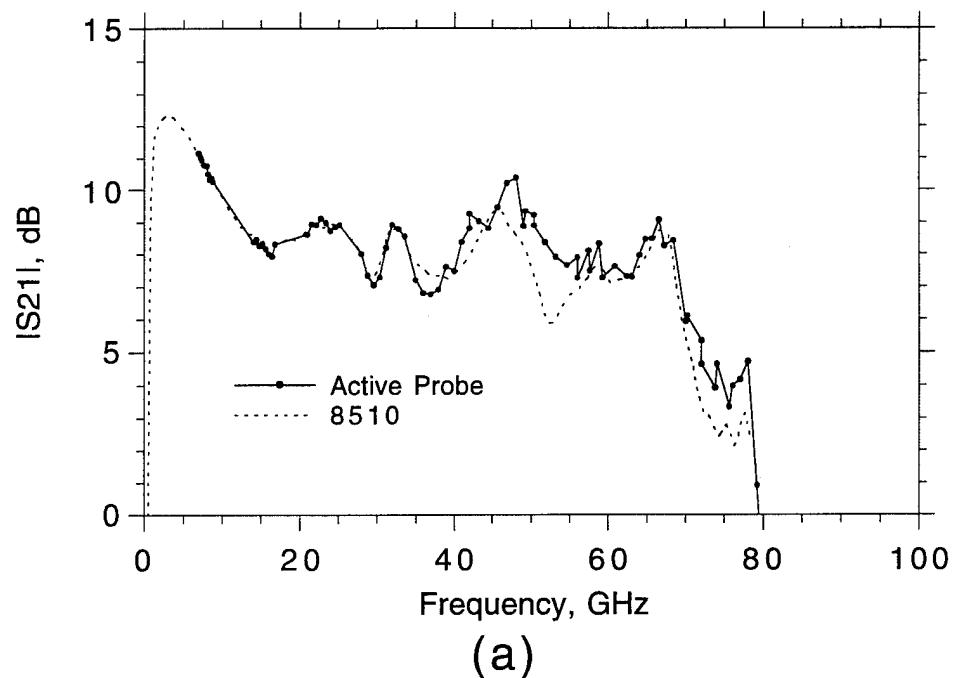


(a)

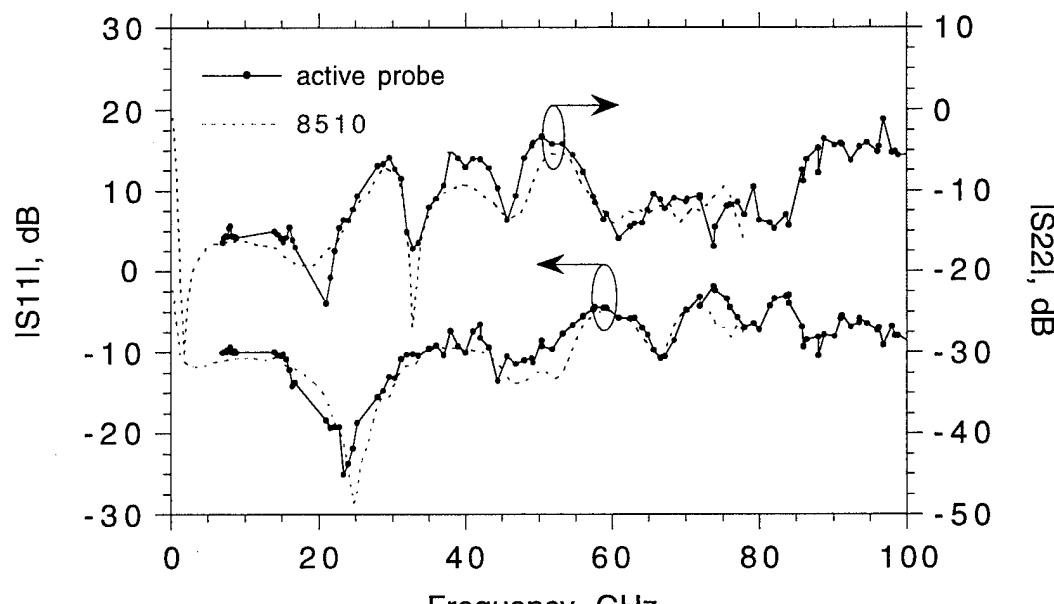


(b)

Figure 24: Gain (a) and reflection coefficients (b) of a medium-power V-band monolithic amplifier characterized by the active probe system. The amplifier was provided by the Fraunhofer Institution.



(a)



(b)

Figure 25: Gain (a) and reflection coefficients (b) of a monolithic traveling-wave amplifier characterized by the active probe system. The amplifier was provided by the Fraunhofer Institution.

## Capacitive-Division Traveling-Wave Amplifier

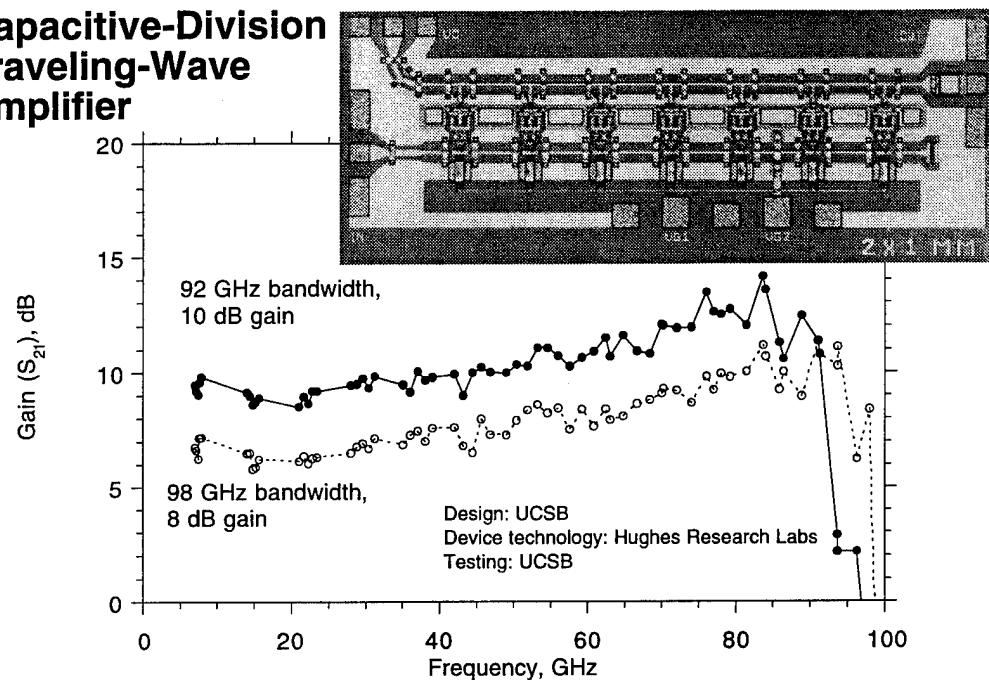


Figure 26: Gain vs. frequency for a UCSB/Hughes Amplifier, as measured by the active probe system

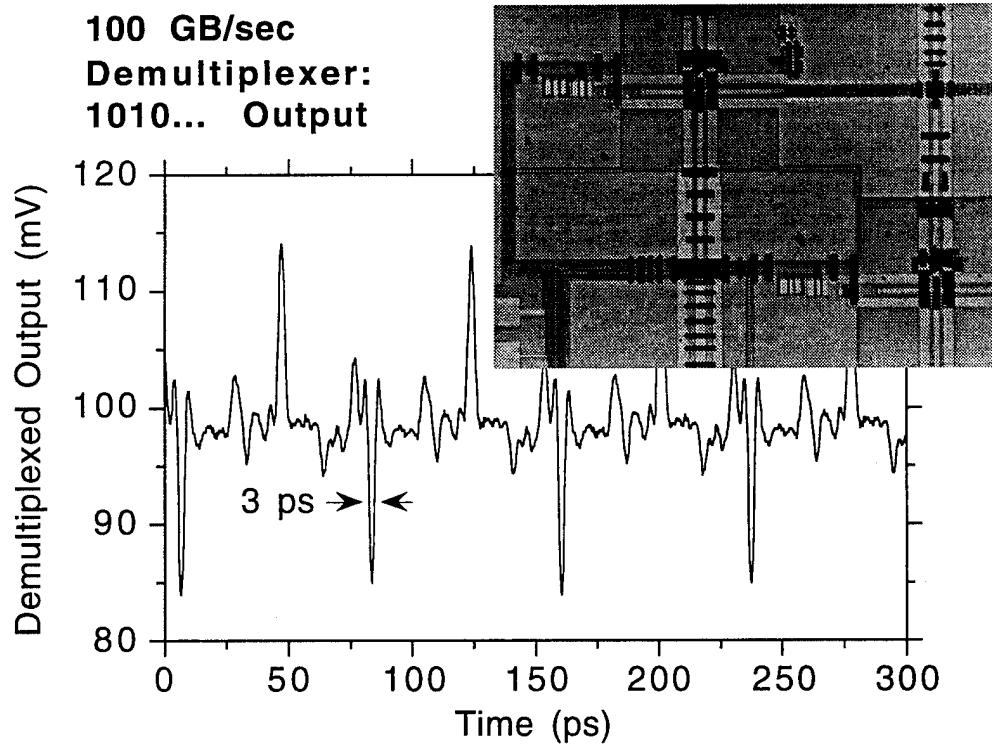


Figure 27: Output of a 100 Gbit/s demultiplexer as measured by the active probe system

## Deep submicron Schottky diodes for THz detection.

Schottky diodes of extremely high bandwidth have also been developed under the AFOSR program. The objective of this work is to develop efficient mixers and detectors for the 1–10 THz frequency range; applications are in THz spectroscopy for Earth remote sensing and radio astronomy. In collaboration with the NASA Jet Propulsion Laboratory, antenna-coupled detector diodes were developed.

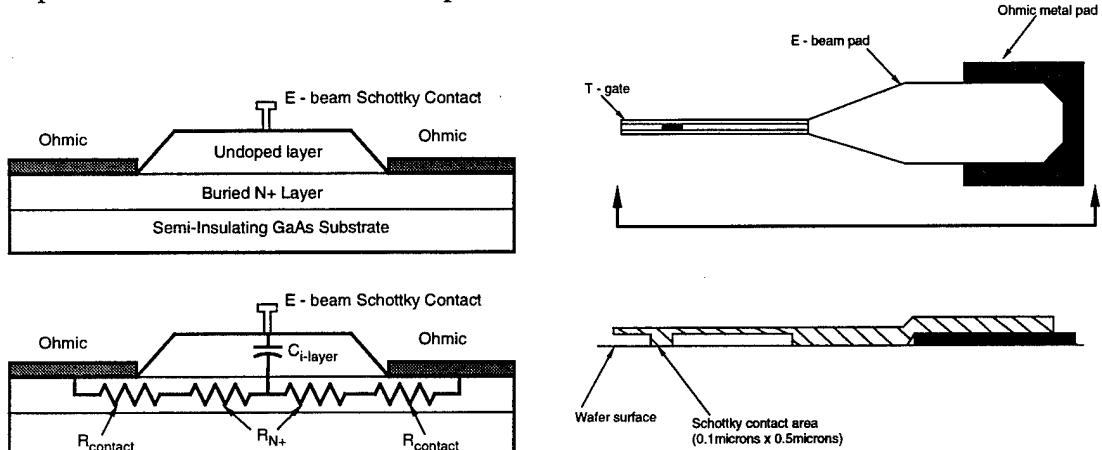


Figure 28: Cross-section of the Mott detector diode showing diode parasitics, and view of the interrupted-footprint E-beam Schottky contact.

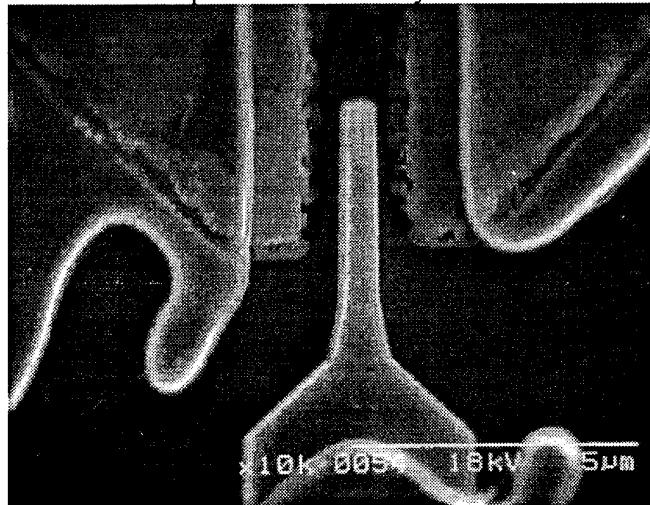


Figure 29: SEM of an antenna-coupled  $0.1 \mu\text{m} \times 0.5 \mu\text{m}$  THz detector diode.

The diodes use a MOTT doping profile (fig. 28), e.g. a  $\text{N}^+ \text{-I-met}$ al design, in preference to the usual Schottky profile ( $\text{N}^+ \text{-N}^- \text{-met}$ al). In the normal Schottky profile, the  $\text{N}^-$  layer is only partly depleted under forward bias, with the undepleted portion contributing series resistance. This is eliminated in the Mott profile. The sidewall capacitance of the normal Schottky profile is also eliminated in the Mott design. To minimize carrier transit times, the I-layer is of 150 Å thickness, while very small junction capacitance is obtained through a  $0.1 \mu\text{m} \times 0.5 \mu\text{m}$  contact area. This small contact area is obtained by using an interrupted-footprint E-Beam process (fig. 28).

The mixer diodes are coupled to on-wafer frequency-independent antennas (fig. 29). The overall bandwidth is a function of both the diode parameters (transit time, series resistance, junction capacitance) and the antenna radiation impedance; inclusive of these effects, the

calculated detector bandwidth is 5-7 THz (fig. 30), with the diode cutoff frequency itself being a factor of 3-5 higher. These diodes are now being used as detectors in THz resonant-tunnel-diode oscillator experiments.

### Mott diode circuit cutoff frequency variation

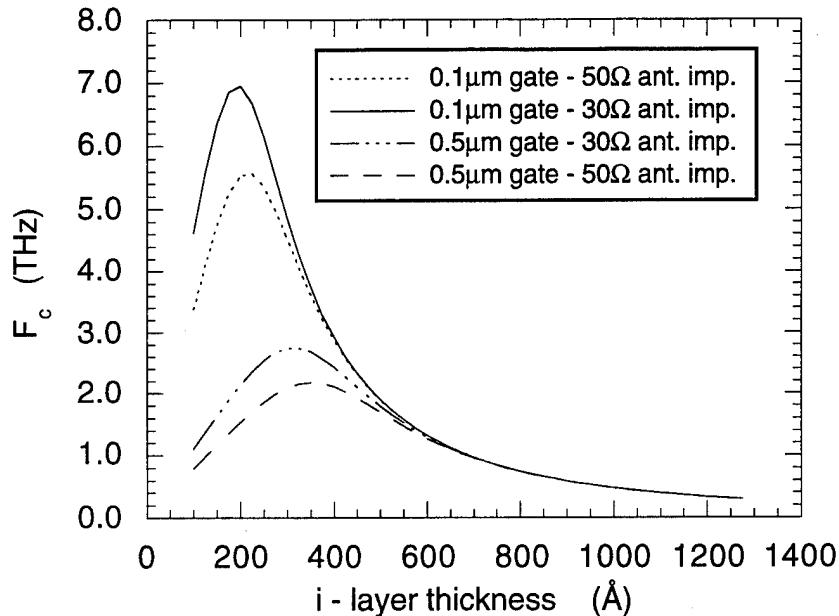


Figure 30: Calculated detector bandwidth inclusive of diode parasitics, antenna radiation impedance, and the diode transit time. The I-layer thickness is 150 Å.

### Traveling-Wave Resonant-Tunnel -Diode Pulse Generators

A significant fraction of the total AFOSR effort was devoted to NLTL development. NLTLs are nonlinear wave propagation devices incorporating Schottky diodes as the nonlinear (charge storage) element. Early literature in the 1960s on nonlinear wave propagation had also considered nonlinear propagation in the presence of negative-resistance elements, e.g. Esaki tunnel diodes.

The UCSB group has been concurrently developing very high bandwidth resonant-tunnel-diodes of a modified form, referred to as Schottky-collector resonant-tunnel diodes (SRTDs). This provided the opportunity to explore nonlinear wave propagation and picosecond pulse generation on distributed structures incorporating the SRTDs. We refer to these structures as traveling-wave-resonant-tunnel-diodes, or briefly as TWRTDs. Our work on NLTLs is motivated by the possibility of deep subpicosecond pulse generation. Theoretical studies on traveling-wave tunnel-diodes from the 1960's had indicated that such structures will also generate step-functions, with the transition time being proportional to the inverse of the tunnel-diode cutoff frequency. As our Schottky-collector resonant-tunnel-diodes had cutoff frequencies of 400 to 900 GHz (AlAs/GaAs devices) to 2.2 THz (InGaAs/AlAs devices), the potential existed for generation of  $\approx$ 500 fs transients on traveling-wave structures incorporating our resonant-tunnel-diodes.

Initial experiments on TWRTDs used earlier UCSB SRTD designs of moderate performance but simple fabrication requirements. TWRTDs were fabricated, and picosecond pulse generation on them measured. As with many of our experiments, the TWRTD outputs were measured by the NLTL active probes. Initial devices exhibited transients with risetimes of approximately 4 ps (fig. 31). Follow this result, improved TWRTDs were analyzed and designed; the improvement being incorporation of the 2.2 THz InGaAs devices in preference to 450 GHz GaAs/AlAs devices. Circuit simulations indicate expected transition times of 300 fs. Fabrication of such devices is awaiting resolution of process difficulties with the SRTDs: under support from a different contract, monolithic SRTD oscillators are being developed.

Despite the potential for subpicosecond pulse generation on TWRTDs, results of our initial experiments lead us to the conclusion the NLTLs are a superior technology for subpicosecond pulse generation. Specifically, for a given performance, NLTLs require much less sophisticated semiconductor material and much simpler processing than TWRTDs. Secondly, while NLTLs require significant drive power, they do not themselves dissipate power, and are therefore not easily destroyed. TWRTDs, in marked contrast, operate with a very high power dissipation. In our experiments, the TWRTD pulse generators were very readily destroyed by excessive DC bias current or excessive microwave input power.

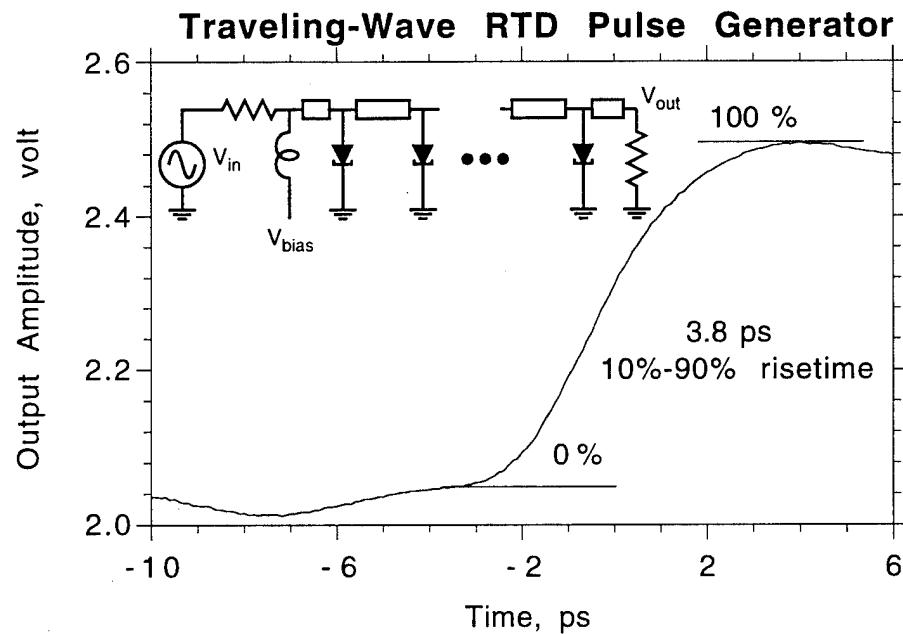


Figure 31: Measured output of a traveling-wave RTD pulse generator.

## **List of Personnel and Degrees**

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- 1) Michael Case (AASERT program until June 1993)  
Ph.D. received June 1993
- 2) Scott Allen (AFOSR program until June 1993, AFOSR/AASERT program from July 1993 to July 1994) Ph.D received June 1994.
- 3) Ruai Yu: Ph.D. received June 1994
- 4) Uddalak Bhattacharya
- 5) Gary Hurtz, Masters Degree in Electrical Engineering Received September 1995.  
(supported under the associated AASERT program)

## **Consulting and Advisory Functions**

Consultant to Hughes Malibu Research Labs in the area of microwave transistor circuit design.

## **Inventions and Patent Disclosures**

To date, no patents have been filed.

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## 13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words)

During the period of the grant the following devices have been developed and experimental results obtained: (1) Shock-wave nonlinear-transmission-line (NLTL) pulse generators and NLTL-grated sampling circuits have been built with 0.48 ps risetimes and 725 GHz bandwidths; (2) Development of 500-100 GHz Schottky-collector Heterojunction Bipolar Transistors were pursued, including device design, mask layout, and two generations of devices fabricated. At the time of the contract end, devices with 120 GHz bandwidths were obtained; (3) Active probes (using NLTL technologies) have been constructed for on-wafer mm-wave network analysis, and measurements demonstrated over a 10-200 GHz bandwidth. The system was then demonstrated with extensive measurements of advanced high-speed ICs; (4) Antenna-coupled 0.1- $\mu$ m Mott switching diodes with circuit-limited bandwidths beyond 5 THz were fabricated; (5) Traveling-wave resonant-tunnel-diode pulse generators were designed, fabricated, and tested. These produced transients with 3.8 ps measured risetimes.

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